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# Bubble Casting Soft Robotics

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Inspired by living organisms, soft robots are developed from intrinsically compliant materials enabling continuous motions mimicking animal and vegetal movement [1]. In soft robots, the canonical hinges and bolts are replaced by elastomers assembled into actuators programmed to change shape following the application of stimuli, e.g. pneumatic inflation [2–5]. The morphing information is typically directly embedded within the shape of these actuators, whose assembly is facilitated by recent advances in rapid prototyping techniques [6–11]. Yet, these manufacturing processes have limitations in scalability, design flexibility and robustness. Here we demonstrate a new all-in-one methodology for the fabrication and the programming of soft machines. Instead of relying on the assembly of individual parts, our approach harnesses interfacial flows in elastomers that progressively cure to robustly produce monolithic pneumatic actuators whose shape can easily be tailored to suit applications ranging from artificial muscles to grippers. We rationalize the fluid mechanics at play in the assembly of our actuators and model their subsequent morphing. We leverage this quantitative knowledge to program these soft machines and produce complex functionalities, e.g. sequential motion obtained from a monotonic stimulus. We expect that the flexibility, robustness and predictive nature of our methodology will accelerate the proliferation of soft robotics by enabling the assembly of complex actuators, e.g. long, tortuous or vascular structures, thereby paving the way towards new functionalities stemming from geometric and material nonlinearities.

1 Soft robots can achieve complex tasks such as gentle  
2 gripping, crawling, or swimming [3, 12, 13] using low-  
3 complexity, muscle-like soft actuators that bend, twist,  
4 contract, or elongate on demand [2, 5, 14–16]. This  
5 unique combination of softness and bioinspired motion  
6 make soft robots appealing for a variety of innovative ap-  
7 plications where rigid robots would fail [17]. This bloom-  
8 ing field is fueled by recent insights in modeling, compu-  
9 tations and manufacturing that enable the design, the  
10 programming and the assembly of various kinds of soft  
11 machines. While chemically, thermally, electrically or  
12 magnetically activated soft actuators have been demon-  
13 strated [18–24], silicone bodied pneumatic robots pow-  
14 ered by pressurized voids have drawn considerable atten-  
15 tion owing to their simple and rapid actuation [25, 26].  
16 The kinematics of such robots is encoded in the actu-  
17 ator flesh, i.e. shape or material, such that a change  
18 of internal pressure is mechanically converted into spe-  
19 cific motion [27]. Manufacturing soft pneumatic actu-  
20 ators, particularly the void, is non-trivial and is usu-  
21 ally accomplished with sequential molding procedures  
22 and removable frameworks that are tailored for specific  
23 actuators. Likewise, state-of-the-art film coating tech-  
24 niques [9–11] are restricted to simple geometries, while

freeform fabrication techniques [7, 8] typically lack scal- 25  
ability and require long printing times. Often, the in- 26  
flation of these actuators is hard to predict such that 27  
trial and error or long simulations are required to tailor 28  
the shape of the actuator for specific applications. Ad- 29  
ditionally, soft pneumatic robots assembled from these 30  
actuators need to perform complex or sequential motion 31  
which typically require several actuators with indepen- 32  
dent fluid sources [28]. 33

Here we introduce *bubble casting*, a simple and versa- 34  
tile fabrication methodology to assemble monolithic ac- 35  
tuators programmed using the rules and tools of fluid 36  
mechanics. Fig. 1a and Movie S1 illustrate our ap- 37  
proach involving elastomers that spontaneously cure 38  
when reagents are mixed (see Methods). We first fill 39  
a tubular mold by injecting uncured elastomer melt. 40  
While the melt is still liquid, we inject air to form an 41  
elongated bubble that creates the inner void of the ac- 42  
tuator (Fig. 1ai). Gravity then sculpts the actuator by 43  
draining the polymer film and allowing the bubble to 44  
rise (Fig. 1aii). Eventually, as the melt solidifies this 45  
shape is *frozen* and the actuator can be readily used 46  
when de-molded, e.g. as a gripper (Fig. 1aiii). In the fol- 47  
lowing we demonstrate how to control bubble casting to 48

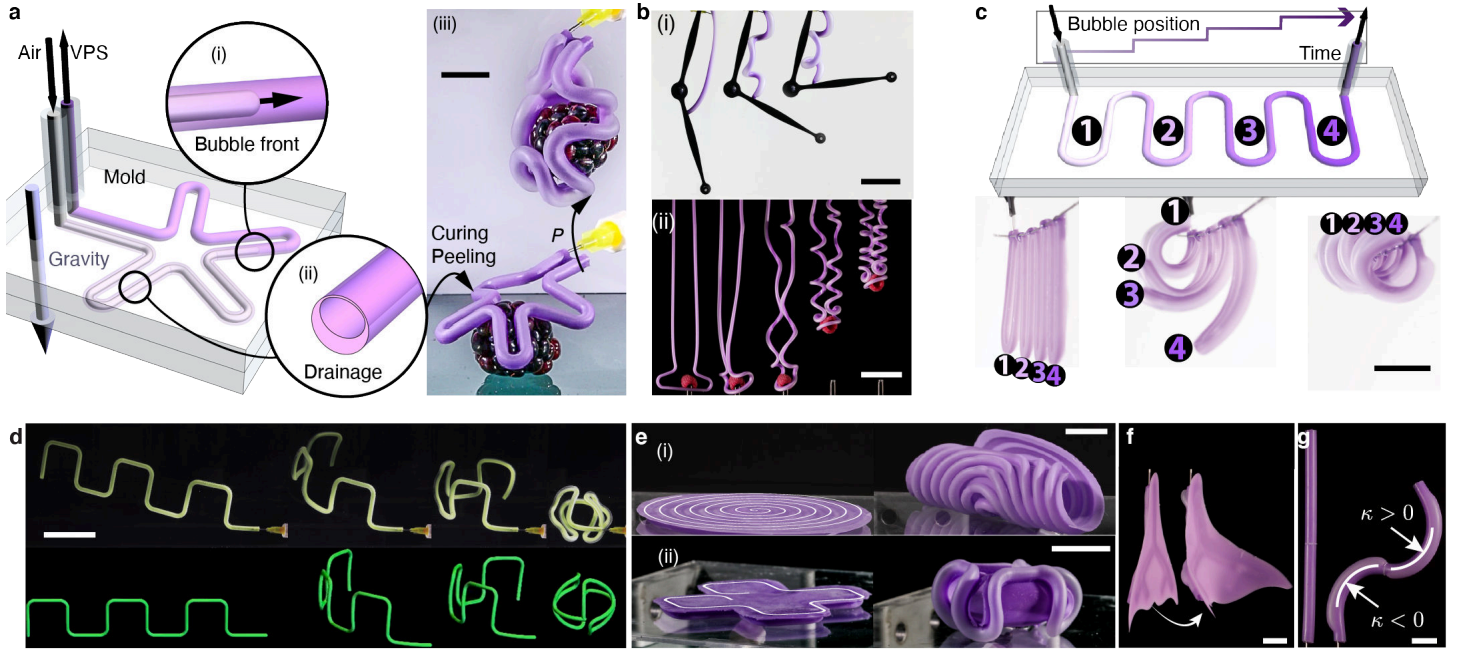


Figure 1: **From flow to programmed actuation.** (a) Schematic of the *bubble Casting* fabrication methodology. A bubble is injected (i) in a mold previously flooded with polymer melt. The residue of polymer drains (ii) and cure to provide a anisotropic actuator that can be readily used when de-molded, e.g. as a gripper (iii) (scale-bar: 1 cm). (b) Contractile coiling of long actuators yielding: (i) muscle-like contraction and (ii) linear translation (scale-bars: 5cm). (c) The bubble casting dynamics is used to program the deformation of an actuator, i.e. displaying sequential flexion of the four labeled digits following inflation via a simple pressure ramp (scale-bar: 1 cm). Morphing dynamics of (d) a curvilinear actuator (experiments and numerical simulation) submerged in a density matched fluid (scale-bar: 2 cm). (e) (i) Spiral shaped actuator and (ii) cross-like actuator, both attached to a thin membrane (scale-bars: 2 cm). (f) "Fish tail" motion is obtained using bubble-casting in a branched network (scale-bar: 1 cm). (g) Actuator displaying curvature of equal magnitude but opposite signs obtained by rotating the mold at the gelation point of the polymer (scale-bar: 1 cm) (see Movie S4).

49 achieve versatile and programmable actuators. We first  
 50 fully rationalize the fluid mechanics at play during the  
 51 bubble injection and the drainage to predict the shape  
 52 of the actuators' cross-section. We then turn to the elas-  
 53 tic problem to elucidate how the bending motion upon  
 54 inflation is determined by the shape previously sculpted.  
 55 We leverage these quantitative results to design actu-  
 56 tors programmed for specific tasks through *bubble cast-*  
 57 *ing* such as soft robotic muscles with tunable strength  
 58 capable of lifting objects (Fig. 1b and Movie S2) and soft  
 59 fingers with sequential actuation from a single pressure  
 60 source (Fig. 1c and Movie S3). Additionally, controlled  
 61 folding in three dimension is demonstrated using curvi-  
 62 linear actuators, either free (Fig. 1d) or attached to thin  
 63 membranes (Fig. 1e-f). Finally, we show that bending in  
 64 different directions can be achieved by rotating portions  
 65 of the mold relative to each other around the gelation  
 66 point of the polymer [29] (Fig. 1g and Movie S4).

The shape of the cross section of our actuators is im-  
 parted by a two-fold process (Fig. 1a). First, the injec-  
 tion of the air bubble in the uncured melt results in the  
 deposition of a thin polymer annulus in the mold, then  
 the concomitant gravity-driven drainage and curing of  
 the elastomer sculpt the final shape. We first consider  
 the shape of the cross-section prior to drainage, right  
 after the bubble injection. The flow at the front of the  
 advancing bubble (Fig. 2a) leaves an annulus of constant  
 thickness  $h_i$ . Fig. 2b shows this thickness in dimension-  
 less form  $h_i/R$  as a function of the dimensionless bubble  
 speed or capillary number  $Ca = \mu U/\gamma$ , with  $R$  the ra-  
 dius,  $\mu$  the melt viscosity,  $U$  the bubble velocity, and  $\gamma$   
 the melt surface tension. The data for different polymers  
 and tube radii fall on a master curve showing that the  
 thickness first increases with the velocity until it even-  
 tually saturates for  $Ca \gtrsim 3$ .

This master curve can be understood from balanc-

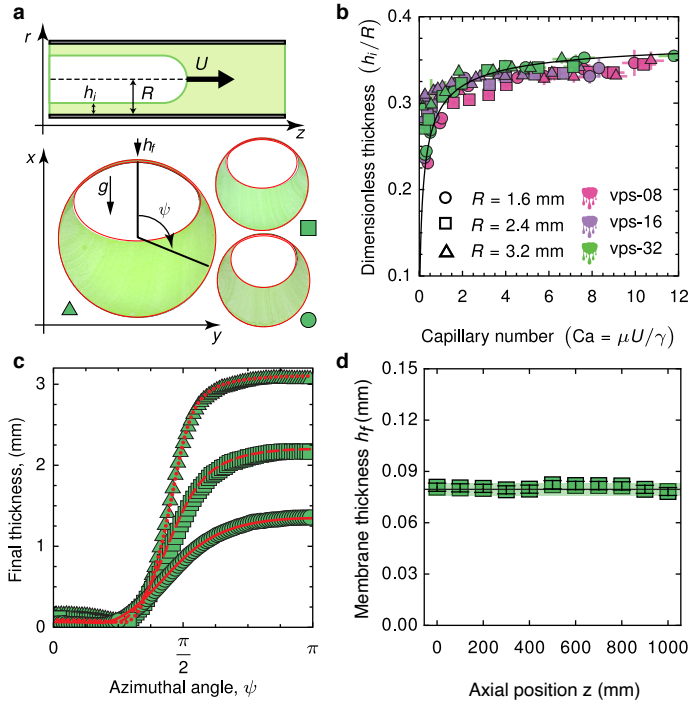


Figure 2: (a) Schematic of the Bretherton problem and photographs of the subsequent final cross-section post drainage. VPS-32 actuators with working time  $\tau_w = 300$ s and radius  $R = \{3.2, 2.4, 1.6\}$  mm, the red lines show our prediction (See SI S2). (b) Dimensionless Bretherton film thickness  $h_i/R$  plotted against the Capillary Number  $Ca = \mu_0 U / \gamma$ . The solid line is theory (Eq. 1) with  $\beta = 2.65$ . (c) Film thickness of the samples in (a) plotted against the central angle  $\psi$ . The red lines are theoretical predictions (identical to a). (d) Average thickness of the membrane  $h_f$  over a meter long sample ( $R=2.4$ mm). The black line shows our prediction while the green band accounts for parameters uncertainty.

ing viscous and capillary forces in the advancing meniscus [30–32] (see SI S1) yielding:

$$\frac{h_i}{R} = \frac{1.34Ca^{2/3}}{1 + 1.34\beta Ca^{2/3}}. \quad (1)$$

We plot Eq. 1 with  $\beta = 2.65$  along our data in Fig. 2b and find a good agreement. The melt annulus thickness, and hence the void fraction of the actuator, can thus be tuned by controlling the bubble velocity. In particular, using  $Ca \gtrsim 3$  robustly results in  $h_i \sim 0.3R$ .

The drainage of the annular polymer film left after bubble injection eventually sculpts the cross-section of our actuators shown in Fig. 2a. As evident from Fig. 2c which shows the thickness along the central angle  $\psi$  de-

finied in Fig. 2a, the final shape consists of an upper thin film ( $\psi \lesssim \pi/4$ ) of quasi uniform thickness connected to a thicker region at the bottom.

We first consider the upper thin film drainage driven by gravity  $g$  and resisted by viscosity [33]. To predict the final thickness, we must account for the time varying viscosity of our melt  $\mu(t)$  as it solidifies. Our rheological measurements (see SI S3.1) are well described by the function  $\mu(t) = \mu_0(1 - t/\tau_c)^{-n}$  which diverges at  $t = \tau_c$  the curing time. The values of the initial viscosity  $\mu_0$ , the curing time  $\tau_c$  and the exponent and  $n \simeq 2$  are fitted from the data, while the density of the melt  $\rho$  is assumed constant (see Table S1). Accounting that the drainage starts at a time  $t = \tau_w$  after the reagents are mixed and finish at  $t = \tau_c$ , we include the viscosity variations in our drainage model [34] (see SI S2.4) and predict the final thickness to be:

$$h(\tau_c) = \sqrt{\frac{3\mu_0 R(n+1)\tau_c^{n+1}}{2\rho g \tau_c(\tau_c - \tau_w)^{n+1}}}. \quad (2)$$

Note that the final film thickness does not depend on the initial film thickness.

We then consider the lower thick part of the cross-sections in Fig. 2a. The shape of this bath results from the competition between gravity and capillarity, yielding the Young-Laplace equation that we solve numerically under the proper constraints (see SI S2.2). Finally, we match the upper film and lower bath to obtain the final thickness profile along the whole cross-section (see SI S2.5). Our model produces the curves overlaid on images of the cross-section in Fig. 2a and the theoretical thickness profile plotted along typical experimental data on Fig. 2c. The agreement is favorable, demonstrating that we have accurately modeled the flow physics of our method.

Note that *bubble casting* does not require external control so that fluid mechanics alone dictates the actuator shape, thereby making this methodology extremely robust. While the membrane thickness is the order  $100 \mu\text{m}$ , we obtain meter long samples that are virtually uniform (see Fig. 2d). Importantly, we can continuously and predictably tune the membrane average thickness  $h_f$  through the waiting time  $\tau_w$  since  $h_f \sim (\tau_c / (\tau_c - \tau_w))^{\frac{n+1}{2}}$  (see Eq. 2). In turn, the membrane thickness will play a key role in the actuator response to inflation as detailed next.

Upon inflation, the upper membrane of our *bubble casted* actuators stretches significantly more than its lower part, thereby creating a torque that bends the

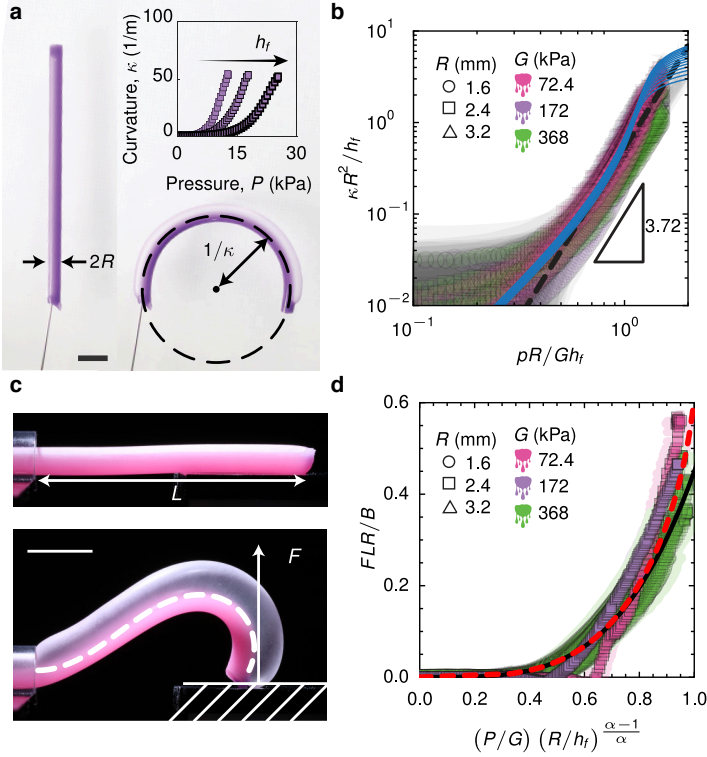


Figure 3: (a) Pictures of a VPS-16 actuator at rest and inflated at constant pressure: the actuator bends with a uniform curvature  $\kappa$  (Scale-bar: 1 cm). Inset: actuator curvature  $\kappa$  as a function of applied pressure  $P$  as the thickness is independently varied:  $h_f = \{130, 165, 273\} \mu\text{m}$ . (b) Rescaled dimensionless curvature  $\kappa R^2/h_f$  plotted against the rescaled pressure  $PR/Gh_f$ . The solid blue lines correspond to the energy minimization theory Eq. S28 for the relevant range of parameters (see SI S4.3). The dashed line is the scaling law Eq. 3 with a prefactor of 0.52. The gray shaded region represents the propagated experimental uncertainty. (c) Pictures of VPS-08 at rest and inflated in a blocking force configuration (Scale-bar: 1 cm). The force  $F$  is measured and reported in (d). The black (resp. red-dotted) line shows the linear (nonlinear) beam theory prediction (see SI S5.2).

the lower region of the actuator is virtually undeformed while the upper thin membrane is under quasi isotropic stretch (Fig. S5a). This observation allows us to derive a simplified theoretical treatment of the problem (see SI S4.3), which combined with dimensional analysis suggests that the rescaled curvature  $\kappa R^2/h_f$  only depends on the rescaled pressure  $PR/Gh_f$  (see SI S4.4).

In Fig. 3b we show that following this rescaling provides a reasonable collapse of our data. The resulting master curve exhibits a power law in the useful range of curvature ( $\kappa/R > 10^{-2}$ ) that we fit and recast to obtain the relationship:

$$\kappa R \sim \left( \frac{P}{G} \left( \frac{R}{h_f} \right)^{\frac{\alpha-1}{\alpha}} \right)^{\alpha}, \quad (3)$$

with  $\alpha = 3.72 \pm 0.07$ .

Further, we model our actuators as elastic rods [35] with effective natural curvature  $\kappa$  varying according to Eq. 3 when pressure is applied. We solve this centerline based model to predict the deformation of the actuators in the presence of external loads (see SI S5.2), e.g. when blocked from bending by a wall (Fig. 3c). We find that the overall shape of the actuator and the blocking force  $F(P)$  exerted in this setup are well captured by our reduced order model when varying independently the actuator bending stiffness  $B$ , shear modulus  $G$ , length  $L$ , radius  $R$ , and thickness  $h_f$  (see Fig. 3d), thereby validating the approximations introduced in our model. Importantly, this model allows us to program the mechanical response of our actuators via the shape of their cross-section as detailed next. In our framework, solving the inverse design problem, i.e. finding the actuator that will morph to a target curvature, merely requires to invert the scaling law in Eq. 3.

Now that we have modeled how our actuators bend and behave as elastic rods, we demonstrate how to leverage this knowledge to design soft robotic muscles inspired by cucumber tendrils [36]. These muscles can be used over a wide range of size and strength (Fig. 4a,b) and can be integrated to programmable soft machines (Fig. 4c).

When subject to gravity, the curvature imparted by the actuation pressure competes with the actuator weight and generates a curling motion (see Fig. 4a). These shapes are analogous to the static configurations obtained with naturally curved elastic rods [37] and are well captured by our centerline-based theory. In Fig. 4d we show that our robotic muscles can contract up to  $1 - \ell/L \approx 80\%$  of their initial length before entering in self-contact, exceeding the stroke of typical pneumatic

actuator (Fig. 3a). In absence of other forces, the actuator bends on its whole length and adopts a uniform curvature  $\kappa$  as shown in Fig. 3a. The pressure required to bend the actuator is independent of its length but increases with the elastic shear modulus  $G$ , outer radius  $R$  and most importantly with the membrane thickness  $h_f$  (Fig. 3a and Fig. S6c). Predicting the deformation of an actuator is amenable to 3D finite element simulations (see SI S4.2), which further confirm that

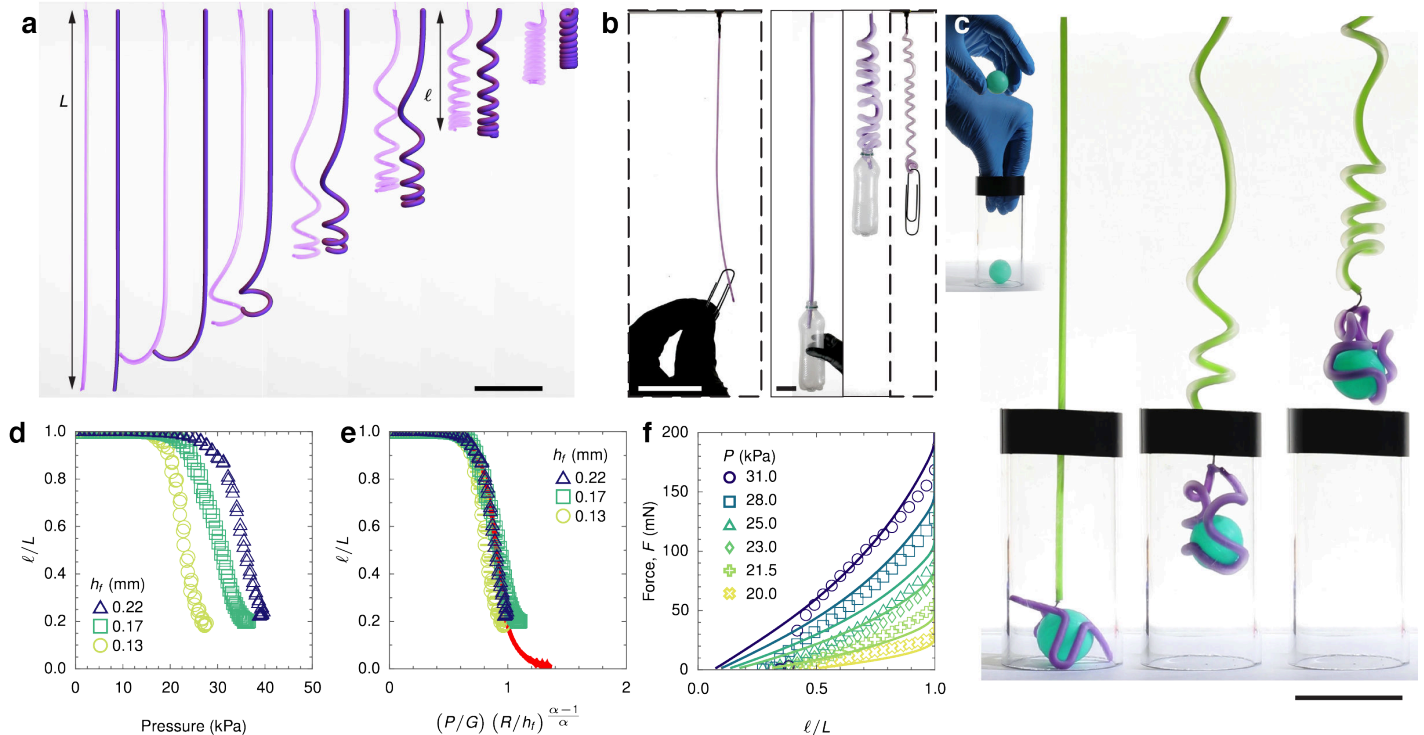


Figure 4: (a) Contractile coiling of an actuator formed in a rectilinear mold. Experiments and model are shown side-by-side (see SI S5; scale-bar: 5 cm). (b) Pictures of two VPS-16 robotic muscles of  $R = 6.4$  and  $0.5$  mm lifting an empty bottle and a paperclip (scale-bars: 4 cm). (c) Pictures of a soft machine gripping and lifting a ball from a narrow cylinder (scale-bar: 5 cm). (d) Contraction  $\ell/L$  (see a) as a function of the applied pressure for actuators with different apex thicknesses  $h_f = \{0.14, 0.17, 0.22\}$  mm. (e) Same data shown as a function of the dimensionless pressure. The red curve is the result of Kirchhoff rod simulations (see SI S5). VPS-16, shear modulus  $G = 172$  kPa, outer radius  $R = 1.6$  mm and length  $L = 320$  mm. (f) Force-elongation curves of a typical actuator at different pressure. The solid curves are the result of the equivalent Kirchhoff rod simulations (see SI S5).

198 muscles [38]. As evident from the figure, the transition  
 199 between the extended and contracted configurations is  
 200 sharp and occurs for values of pressure varying with  $h_f$ .  
 201 In Fig. 4e we show that the variation of the free-hang  
 202 length with pressure collapses when using Eq. 3 com-  
 203 bined to our rod model, further confirming the validity  
 204 of our rod theory in the limit of very large deforma-  
 205 tions. As such, we can predict and tune the pulling  
 206 force exerted by these muscles. For instance, in Fig. 4f  
 207 we show that the effective stiffness of our muscles can  
 208 be smoothly varied via the applied pressure. This level  
 209 of control allows us to program soft machines capable of  
 210 achieving complex tasks, such as fetching a ball sitting at  
 211 the bottom of a narrow cylinder (Fig. 4c and Movie S5).  
 212 This contraption comprises two interconnected building  
 213 blocks reverse engineered using Eq. 3 to sequentially grip  
 214 and then pull a ball following the monotonic increase of

a *single* pressure source.

215  
 216 Programming can also be achieved using fluid mechan-  
 217 ics alone, i.e. modulating the membrane thickness  $h_f$  via  
 218 eq. 2. For instance, using a programmed sequence of in-  
 219 jection of the bubble where  $\tau_w$  increases by step across  
 220 a sample, we readily cast an actuator with four different  
 221 values of  $h_f$ , each confined to a "finger" of the actuator  
 222 (see Fig. 1c). As a result, an increase of the pressure in  
 223 this monolithic actuator leads to the sequential bending  
 224 of each finger shown in Fig. 1c and Movie S3. Likewise,  
 225 we can solve the inverse problem where a simple target  
 226 shape can be obtained by carefully choosing  $\tau_w$  across  
 227 the actuator (see Movie S6).

228 In closing, we note that *Bubble casting* is a bonding-  
 229 free fabrication method that relies on the fluid flow in-  
 230 stead of an internal template to build a void. This re-  
 231 liance on continuum mechanics as opposed to machined

232 parts allows for defect free fabrication of soft pneumatic  
233 actuators over a wide range of sizes (see Fig. 1 and 4)  
234 and previously impossible aspect ratios. In particular,  
235 the thin membranes we achieve optimize the eccentric  
236 void topology and outperform most inflatable actua-  
237 tors in terms of bending coefficients (defined as the ra-  
238 tio between the curvature and the applied pressure at  
239 a bending deformation of  $90^\circ$  [25]). Further, the un-  
240 constrained internal surface makes the construction of  
241 curved and network actuators that achieve 3D folding  
242 shapes (Fig. 1d-f and Movie S4) as simple as building  
243 straight actuators. These new capabilities will resonate  
244 in the soft matter community, and, in particular could  
245 lead to new generation robotic materials suited to move  
246 and interact with their environment while maintaining  
247 tractable complexity. More generally, our methodology  
248 falls under the category of approaches leveraging out-of-  
249 equilibrium fluidic processes to revolutionize our ability  
250 to build structures, e.g. relying on instabilities [39, 40],  
251 shear-flow [41], Marangoni effects [42] and centrifugal  
252 forces [43].

## 253 Methods

254 To make our actuators we used vinyl polysiloxane  
255 (VPS), Zhermack elite double 8, 16, and 32 silicone elas-  
256 tomers ( $G = 72.4, 172, 368$  kPa respectively). The cat-  
257 alyst and prepolymer base were mixed in a 1:1 weight  
258 ratio in a centrifugal mixer for 10 s at 2,000 rpm (clock-  
259 wise) and 10 s at 2,200 rpm (counterclockwise) at room  
260 temperature. The resulting polymer melt (rheology de-  
261 scribed in SI S3.1) was injected into a mold where we  
262 then followed our *bubble casting* method, as described  
263 in the text. For the molds we used cellulose tubes  
264 ( $R = 1.6, 2.4, 3.2, 6.4$  mm), glass tubes ( $R = 0.5$  mm),  
265 and cast acrylic sheets carved with a cnc milling tool on  
266 one side.

267 Schematics for our experiments are shown in Fig. S4.  
268 The bubble velocity, curvature data, and free-hang  
269 length was recorded using a camera and image process-  
270 ing in Python. Since the final drainage loses memory of  
271 the initial condition (as described in the text), we often  
272 injected the bubble early and reset  $\tau_w$  by flipping the  
273 mold. This allowed us to maintain constant drainage  
274 timing along the length of long actuators. To attach  
275 the thin membranes shown in Fig. 1e,f, the two sides of  
276 the carved molds (see Fig. 1a) were separated. Some  
277 more polymer was then spin-coated on top of the actua-  
278 tor still encased in the mold. We realized the experi-  
279 ment show in Fig. 1g by joining two tubes using a 3D

280 printed tube connector. When the polymer is at the  
281 gelation point one tube is carefully rotated relative to  
282 the other (see Fig. S8). The cross-section profiles were  
283 obtained post curing using an optical microscope and  
284 ImageJ. Pressure data was measured using a differen-  
285 tial pressure sensor (MPX5100dp) connected to a data  
286 acquisition board (Arduino). To measure the pulling  
287 force, we attached the actuator to an Instron and per-  
288 formed tensile tests. The blocking force was measured  
289 by placing the free end of the actuator on a plate fit-  
290 ted to a load cell. The curvature of our actuators was  
291 measured without external forces (e.g. gravity) by float-  
292 ing the elastomer on a water bath. Actuator mechanics  
293 were measured quasi-statically by slowly injecting air in  
294 1 s pulses and waiting 4 s between pulses. All actuators  
295 were pierced with syringe needles and inflated by a sy-  
296 rringe mounted on a syringe pump (Harvard Apparatus).

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301 2042930)  
302

## Author Contributions

303 T.J.J., J.M., and P.-T.B. conceived the project. T.J.J.,  
304 E.J.-P., and P.-T.B. conducted the experiments and an-  
305 alyzed the data. T.J.J. performed the Kirchhoff rod  
306 simulations. E.J.-P. performed the finite element sim-  
307 ulations. All authors wrote the manuscript.  
308

## Data availability

309 The authors declare that the main data supporting the  
310 findings of this study are available within the article  
311 and its Supplementary Information files. Extra data are  
312 available from the corresponding author upon request.  
313

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